

Lecture 06, 07 Sept 2006
 Ch4, Leopold, Costanza,
 Driessen

Conservation Biology
 ECOL 406R/506R
 University of Arizona
 Fall 2006

Kevin Bonine
 Kathy Gerst



Biodiversity

Ch4, begin Ch2 for Tues
 Lab this Friday (08 Sept 2006), meet S side BSE 1230
 (see website for lab readings)

1

Housekeeping, 07 September 2006

Papers to turn in?

Upcoming Readings

today: Leopold, Text Ch.4, Costanza 1997, Driessen 2004

Tues 12 Sept: Textbook Ch. 4, begin Ch 2

Thurs 14 Sept: Text Ch. 2

Short oral presentations

12 Sept Gabe Wigtil and Kim Baker

14 Sept open

19 Sept Tara Luckau and Frank Emmert?

21 Sept Grant Rogers and Jeremy Daniel

2

Grading for Oral Presentations:

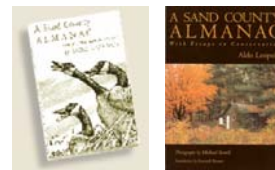
Content
 (quality of content, relevance to conservation issues):
 25 points

Presentation
 (speaking, slide design, professionalism):
 10 points

Response to questions:
 5 points

3

1887-1948



<http://www.aldoleopold.org/Biography/Biography.htm>
 Aldo Leopold Foundation

Leopold

Thinking like a mountain
 " a mountain lives in mortal fear of its deer"

Escudilla
 progress?
 "It's only a mountain now."

"a thing is right when it tends to preserve
 the integrity, stability, and beauty of the
 biotic community. It is wrong when it
 tends otherwise"

Aldo Leopold

The planet will survive, will we?

5

6

Aldo Leopold Land Ethic

-land ethic enlarges the community to include biota

-processes
-evolutionary/ecological biology

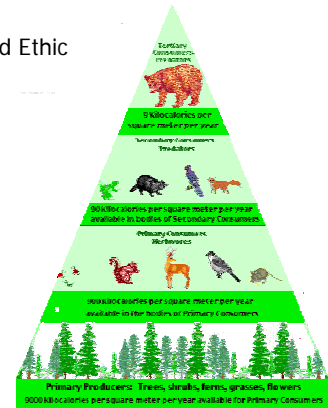
-scale of perturbation (temporal, spatial)

-What is "land-health?"

7

Aldo Leopold Land Ethic

-land pyramid



"In our attempt to make conservation easy we have made it trivial" (p.246)

-Leopold

9

"Whether you will or not
You are a King, Tristram, for you are one
Of the time-tested few that leave the world,
When they are gone, not the same place it was.
Mark what you leave."

As quoted in Leopold, 1949
p. 261 (The Land Ethic)

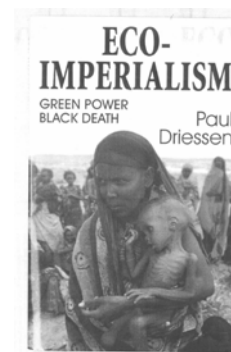
Role of scale... (context of disturbance and extinction)



Anthropogenic perturbations:

...fast rate and large spatial scale.
(Cited in Callicott 1997)

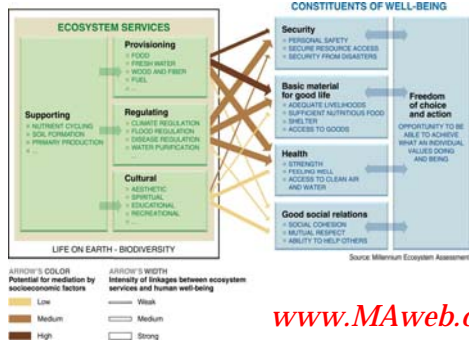
11



2004 5
Sustainable Mosquitoes – Expendable People

12

Focus: Consequences of Ecosystem Change for Human Well-being



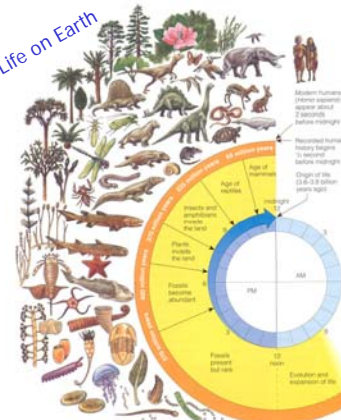
www.MAweb.org

2) Should 'intrinsic' or 'instrumental' values be the basis for planning conservation efforts? Why? (due 07 Sep)

Nothing in biology makes sense except in the light of evolution.

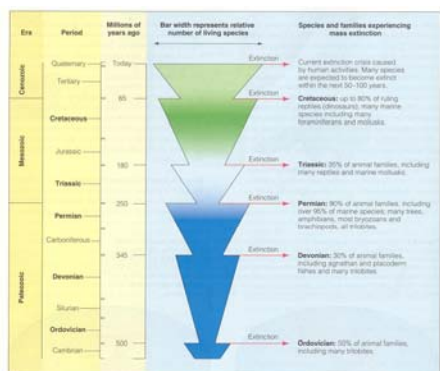
THEODOSIUS DOBZHANSKY

Evolution of Life on Earth



Miller 2003

Figure 5.8 Greatly simplified overview of the biological evolution of life on the earth, which was provided by



Miller 2003

Major Extinction Events

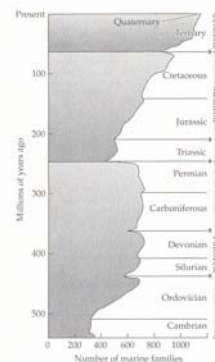


Figure 2.5 Diversity of marine families from the Cambrian to the present. The asterisks mark the five major mass extinction events. Groom et al. 2006

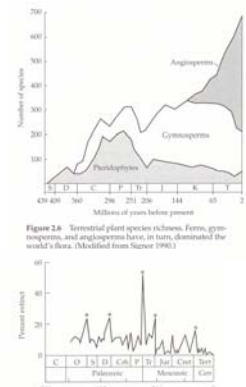


Figure 2.6 Terrestrial plant species richness. Ferns, gymnosperms, and angiosperms have, in turn, dominated the world's flora. (Modified from Science 1996)

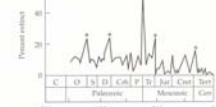
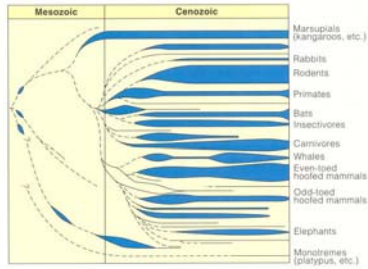


Figure 2.7 Extinctions of families through geologic time. The five historical mass extinction events are marked with an asterisk.

Adaptive Radiation

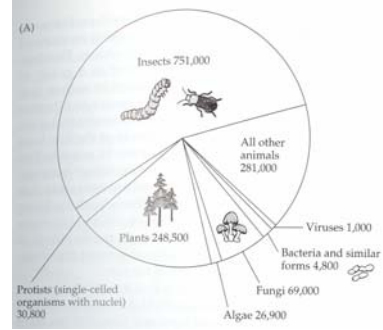
Figure 5-10 Adaptive radiation of mammals began in the first 10–12 million years of the Cenozoic era (which began about 65 million years ago) and continues today. This evolution of a large number of new species is thought to have resulted when huge numbers of new and vacated ecological niches became available after the mass extinction of dinosaurs near the end of the Mesozoic era. (Used by permission from Caine Starr and Ralph Teggart, *Biology: The Unity and Diversity of Life*, 8th ed., Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1998)

Miller 2003



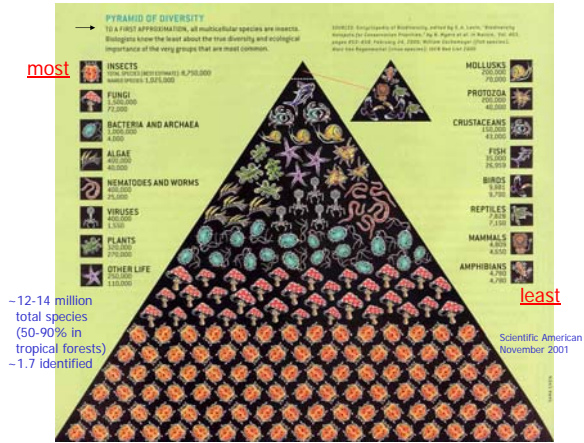
25

What is biodiversity?



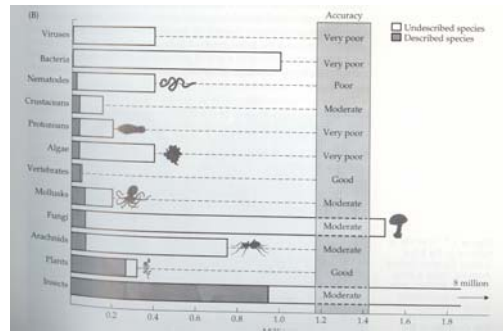
Primack 2006, Fig 3.6

26



-12-14 million total species (50-90% in tropical forests)
 -1.7 identified

How many species on earth?



Primack 2006, Fig 3.6

Research Focus?

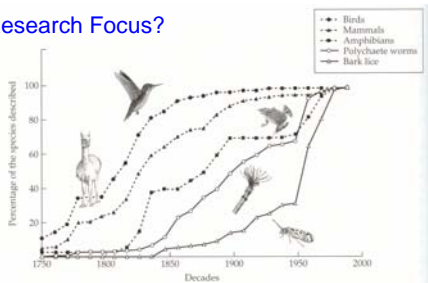


FIGURE 3.10 For five groups of Chilean animals, the cumulative percentage of the known species described from 1750 to 2000. Note that the majority of birds and mammals were largely described by 1900, and probably few new species remain to be discovered. In contrast, polychaete worms and bark lice were largely neglected by early taxonomists and are only now being investigated and described. Amphibians are intermediate in their intensity of study. (After Primack et al. 2001.)

Primack 2006

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Biodiversity

1. Genetic
(nat. sel.)

2. Species

3. Ecological
forests, deserts, lakes, wetlands, reefs etc.

4. Functional
energy flow
nutrient cycling
etc.

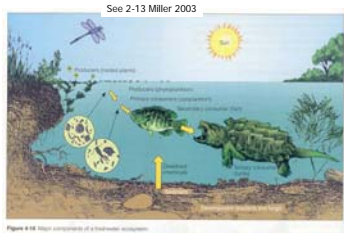


Figure 4-14 Main components of a freshwater ecosystem

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Levels of Biological Organization.

Scaling.

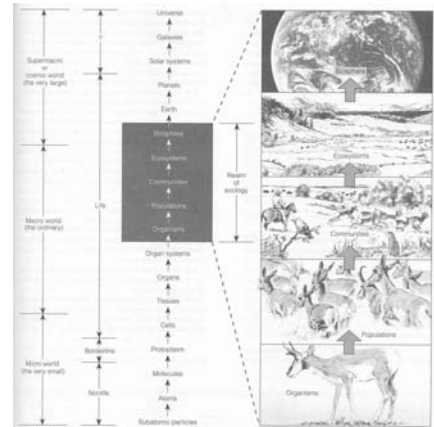


Figure 2-4 Levels of organization of matter in nature. Notice the five levels that ecology focuses on.

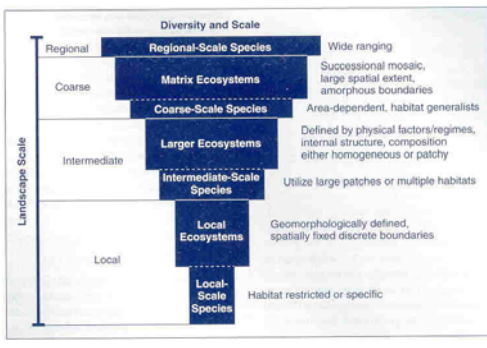


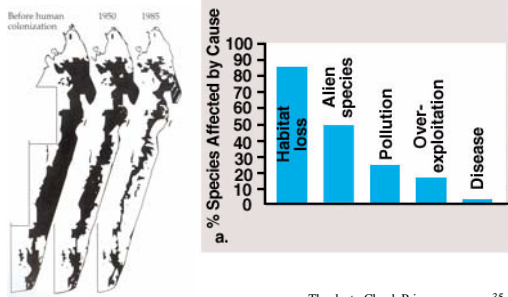
Figure 4.15 Biodiversity and scale. A method of categorizing biodiversity at regional, coarse, intermediate, and local geographic scales. Modified from Poiani et al. (2000). © 2001 American Institute of Biological Sciences.

Table with 2 columns: Indicators and Description. Rows include Genetic, Population, Community, and Ecosystem indicators.

Groom et al. 2006

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Threats to biodiversity – habitat loss



Thanks to Chuck Price

35

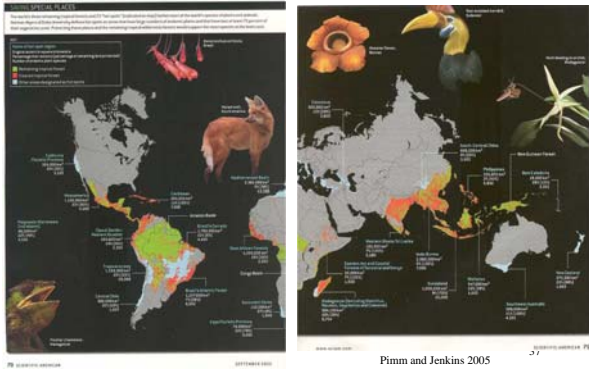
Biodiversity (Biological Diversity)

“structural and functional variety of life forms at genetic, population, community, and ecosystem levels”

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Where is biodiversity?

One tree in Peru with same ant diversity as Britain



Species Richness and Latitude

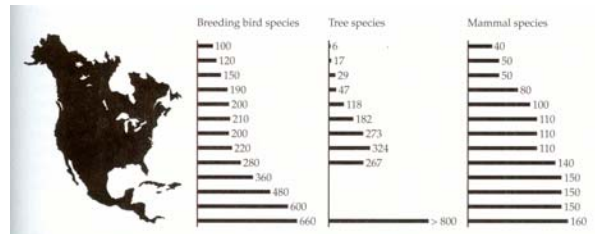


FIGURE 3.5 In North America, as in all the continents, the numbers of bird, tree, and mammal species increase toward the Tropics. The numbers of species indicated in the bar graphs correspond to latitude in the map at left. Tree species diversity is not available for some lower latitudes. (From Briggs 1995.)

Primack 2006

Altitude?

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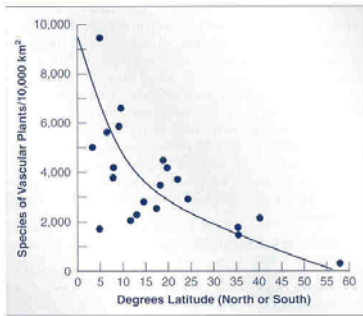


Figure 4.12

Latitudinal patterns in species richness from tropical to temperate regions. In most taxa the number of species increases from temperate to tropical regions.

Van Dyke 2003

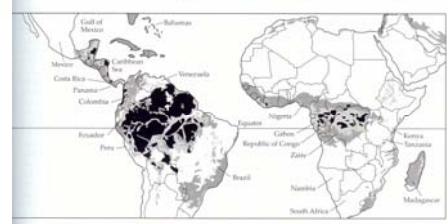
After Reid and Miller (1989). Reprinted from Huston (1994).

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FIGURE 3.1 Tropical rain forests are found predominantly in wet, equatorial regions of America, Africa, and Asia. Eight thousand years ago, tropical forests covered the entire shaded area, but human activities have resulted in the loss of a great deal of forest cover, shown in the darkest shade. In the lighter shaded area forests remain, but they are no longer true tropical forests; instead they are (1) secondary forests that have grown back following cutting, (2) plantation forests such as rubber and teak, or (3) forests degraded by logging and fuelwood collection. Only in the regions shown in black are there still blocks of intact natural tropical forest large enough to support all of their biodiversity. (After Bryant et al. 1997.)



Tropical Rainforests



Primack 2006

Coral Reefs

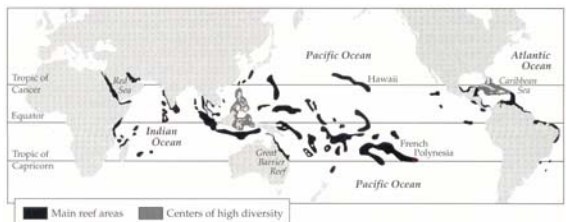


FIGURE 3.4 Global distribution of the coral reef biome. (After Wells and Hanna 1992.)

Primack 2006

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Lissamphibia

Urodela
(salamanders)

10 families, 60 genera, 516 spp.

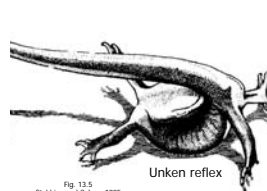


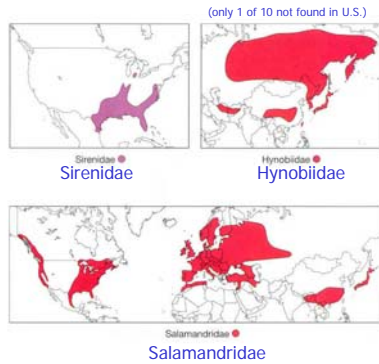
Fig. 13.5
Stebbins and Cohen, 1995



Urodela families

Figure 3-3 Distribution of salamander families Sirenidae, Hynobiidae, and Salamandridae.

Pough et al. 2004



Urodela families

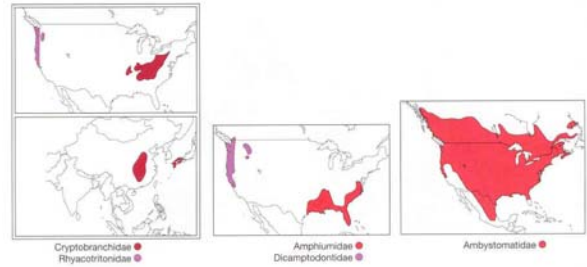


Figure 3-4 Distribution of salamander families Cryptobranchidae, Rhyacotritonidae, Amphiumidae, Dicamptodontidae, and Ambystomatidae.

Pough et al. 2004

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Urodela families

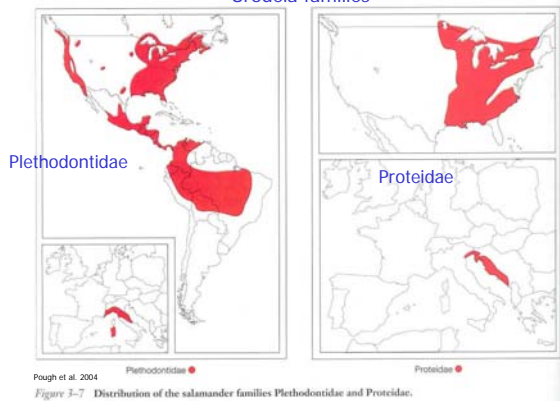


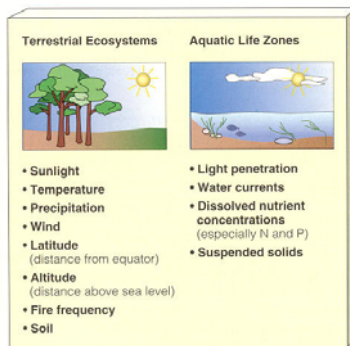
Figure 3-7 Distribution of the salamander families Plethodontidae and Proteidae.

What factors correlated with high diversity?

- Energy
- Precipitation
- Temperature
- Area
- Habitat heterogeneity (e.g., foliage height and birds)
- Stable environment
- Moderate (intermediate) disturbance level (shifting mosaic, no climax)

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Distribution and Abundance



Other Miller 2003

Figure 4-12 Key physical and chemical or abiotic factors affecting terrestrial ecosystems (left) and aquatic life zones (right).

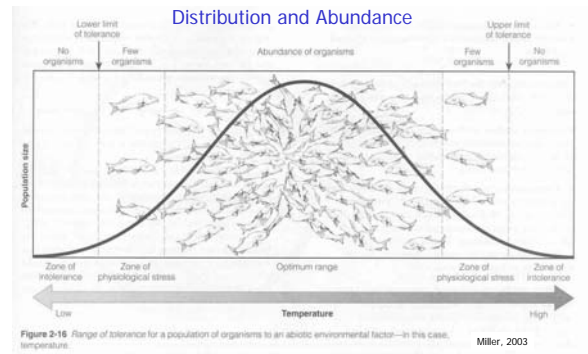


Figure 3-16 Range of tolerance for a population of organisms to an abiotic environmental factor—in this case, temperature. Miller, 2003

Range of tolerance of abiotic factor(s)

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Terrestrial Biomes

(Forest, Desert, Grassland, Tundra, etc.)
Biotic (~Vegetative) Communities

Climate

1. Temperature
2. Precipitation
- (3. Soil type)

- Latitude
- Altitude

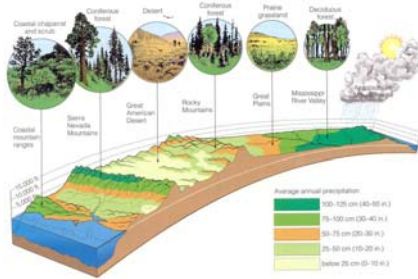


Figure 4.8 Major biomes found along the 39th parallel across the United States. The differences reflect changes in climate, mainly differences in average annual precipitation and temperature (not shown). Miller 2003 3-5

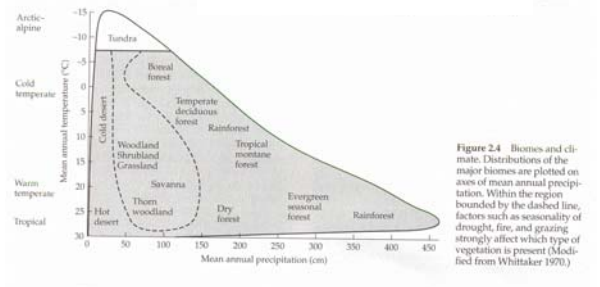


Figure 2.4 Biomes and climate. Distributions of the major biomes are plotted on axes of mean annual precipitation. Within the region bounded by the dashed line, factors such as seasonality of drought, fire, and grazing strongly affect which type of vegetation is present (Modified from Whittaker 1970).

Groom et al. 2006

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1. Competition



Anolis



Ecomorphs on Caribbean Islands



Pisaster (predatory sea star)
Paine
15 vs. 8 spp.
(mussels)



52

2. Predation



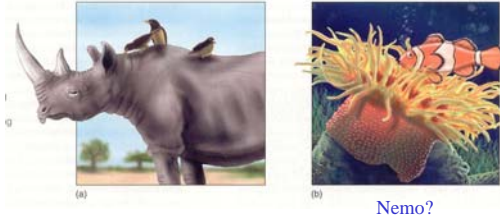
53

3. Parasitism



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4. Mutualism



See 4-2 in Miller 2003

55

5. Commensalism



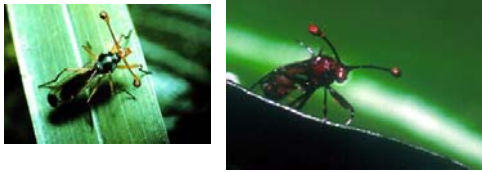
Florida



Ecuador

Bromeliads

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Stalk-Eyed Flies

Sexual Selection

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Mistletoe in Mesquite (Bisbee, AZ)

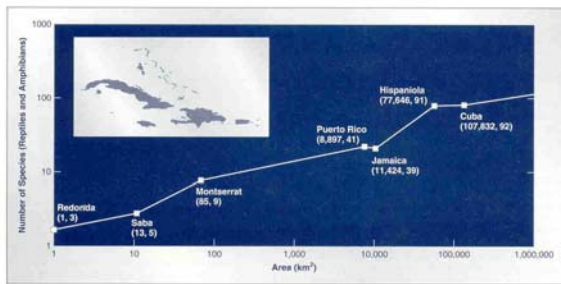


Figure 4.4
A general species-area relationship among some Caribbean islands. Note that species richness on islands increases with increasing area. Based on data from Darlington (1957:483).

Species-Area Relationship

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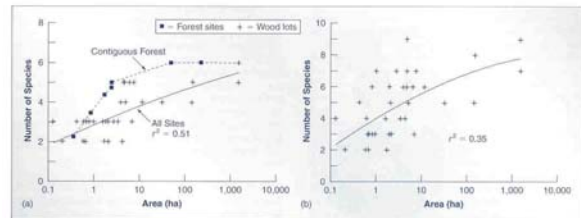


Figure 4.5
An illustration of the relationship between area and species richness of (a) grasslands and (b) all small mammal species in woodlots (circles) and contiguous forest sites (squares). Species richness increases with woodlot area. In (a), note that grassland species richness increases with area more rapidly in contiguous forest than in woodlots. This pattern suggests that species richness not only declines with habitat loss, but also with habitat fragmentation. After Napp and Seiherr (2008).
Van Dyke 2003

Woodlots vs. contiguous forest

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Species-Area Relationship

$$S = cA^z$$

S = species richness
 c = taxon-specific constant
 A = area
 Z = extinction coefficient for taxon

3 step loss of biodiversity (Rosenzweig)

1. Endemics
2. Sink populations
3. Stochasticity

Therefore end up with lower steady state species richness and loss of biodiversity

Endemism and Islands (Tuatura, Silversword)
 Island Biogeography

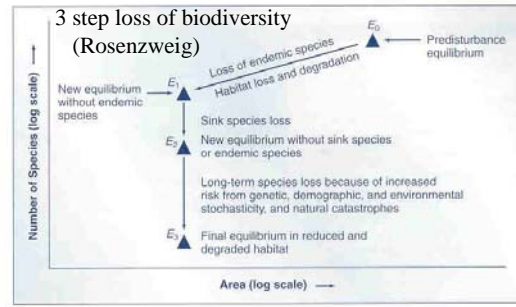


Figure 4.6
 When the size of a natural area is decreased, the first species lost are endemics. Next, sink species (those that are not reproducing fast enough to replace themselves) go extinct locally. Finally, failure to replace accidental losses fast enough brings the province to a still lower steady state of biodiversity.
 After Rosenzweig (1999).
 Van Dyke 2003

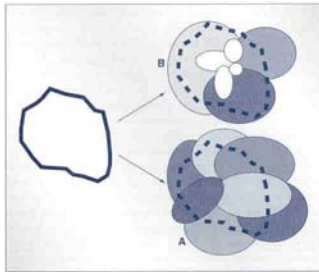


Figure 4.7
 The "cookie cutter" model of the effects of habitat loss on endemic species. If the cookie cutter strikes at subarea A, seven species lose habitat but none is exterminated. In contrast, if the cookie cutter strikes subarea B, an area containing species with more restricted ranges, seven species lose habitat, and four species are exterminated. Thus, random habitat loss produces a disproportionately high rate of extinction in endemic species.
 After Pimm (1998).
 Van Dyke 2003

Endemics
 Habitat Size
 Habitat Loss

Species Focus ---> Biodiversity and Process Focus (ESA)

What being lost vs. why...

Species = ?

Biological Species Concept (Mayr)
 "a group of interbreeding populations that are reproductively isolated from other such groups"

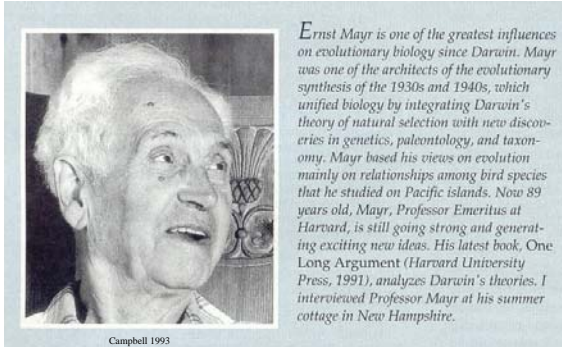
- 2-morphological/typological species concept (plants)
- 3-evolutionary species concept
- 4-genetic species concept
- 5-paleontological species concept
- 6-cladistic species concept

Biological Species Concept

1. Testable and operational
2. Definition compatible with established legal concepts
3. Focus on level of biodiversity that agrees with tradition of conservation

Conserve Species as

TYPES
 or as
 EVOLUTIONARY UNITS



Ernst Mayr is one of the greatest influences on evolutionary biology since Darwin. Mayr was one of the architects of the evolutionary synthesis of the 1930s and 1940s, which unified biology by integrating Darwin's theory of natural selection with new discoveries in genetics, paleontology, and taxonomy. Mayr based his views on evolution mainly on relationships among bird species that he studied on Pacific islands. Now 89 years old, Mayr, Professor Emeritus at Harvard, is still going strong and generating exciting new ideas. His latest book, *One Long Argument* (Harvard University Press, 1991), analyzes Darwin's theories. I interviewed Professor Mayr at his summer cottage in New Hampshire.

Campbell 1993

Ernst Mayr (1904-2005)
Published papers for > 80 years

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Figure 22.3 Ernst Mayr in New Guinea, 1927. During his expedition, the naturalist (on the right, photographed with his guide) was struck by the almost exact match in how he and the native Papuans divided the birds of the Anulus Mountains into separate species. It was one of many experiences that led to Mayr's biological species concept, which emphasizes interbreeding within species and reproductive isolation between species.

You've also written that we humans have extraordinary responsibility because of our uniqueness as a species. Yes, humans are basically responsible for all the bad things that at the present time happen to our planet, and we are the only ones who can see all these things and do something about them. If we would stop the human population explosion, we would have already won two-thirds of the battle. That we live here just as exploiters of this planet is an ethic that does not appeal to me. Having become the dominant species on our planet, we have the responsibility to preserve the well-being of this planet. I feel that it should be a part of our ethical system that we should preserve and maintain and protect this planet that gave origin to us.

Ernst Mayr interviewed in Campbell 1993

Galapagos Finches



Brassica oleracea



Figure 17-8 A number of common vegetables are members of the same species, *Brassica oleracea*, including cauliflower, broccoli, cabbage, brussels sprouts, and kale. Artificial selection is responsible for the variation shown within this species. (Raymond Tschertke)

Solomon et al. 1993

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Aspidoscelis (Cnemidophorus)
Species vs. Parthenospecies...



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1. Indicator Species
 - migratory birds
 - amphibians

2. Keystone Species
 - top predators
 - key pollinators



Rana pipiens
Northern Leopard Frog

3. Umbrella Species

Native Species
vs.

Nonnative, exotic, alien

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Measuring Biodiversity

- alpha - beta - gamma

Alpha

species within a community

community

- all populations occupying a given area at a given time
- often broken into taxonomic groups or functional roles

- 1) Species Richness (# of species)
- 2) Species Evenness (how many of each type?)

Shannon Diversity Index (richness and evenness)

$$H' = -\sum_i p_i \ln(p_i), \quad (i = 1, 2, 3 \dots S)$$

p_i = proportion of total community abundance represented by i th species

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Table 4.3 Abundance (individuals/10 ha) and diversity (Shannon index, $H' = -\sum(p_i \ln p_i)$) of avian species from two tallgrass prairie sites at DeSoto National Wildlife Refuge, Iowa. Note that site A, with fewer species (8) and two highly abundant species (common yellowthroat and field sparrow), has a lower value of diversity than site B, which has more species (11) that are more equally abundant. Van Dyke 2003

SPECIES	SITE A	SITE B
Common yellowthroat	8.24	1.21
Field sparrow	2.94	2.84
Dickcissel	1.18	2.23
Red-winged blackbird	0.29	0.81
Brown-headed cowbird	2.06	1.82
American goldfinch	1.47	1.02
Ringneck pheasant	0.59	1.63
Mourning dove	1.18	0.61
Eastern kingbird	—	1.60
Grasshopper sparrow	—	4.48
Northern bobwhite	—	2.64
Shannon diversity (H')	1.64	2.25

Shannon Index in Tallgrass Prairie

(indiv spp abundance relative to total abundance)

What if removed three species from B?

1.64				2.25			
a	prop	ln	prop*ln	b	prop	ln	prop*ln
8.24	0.459053	-0.77859	-0.35741	1.21	0.057922	-2.84865	-0.165
2.94	0.163788	-1.80918	-0.29632	2.84	0.13595	-1.99547	-0.27128
1.18	0.065738	-2.72208	-0.17894	2.23	0.10675	-2.23727	-0.23883
0.29	0.016156	-4.12546	-0.06665	0.81	0.038775	-3.24999	-0.12602
2.06	0.114763	-2.16488	-0.24845	1.82	0.087123	-2.44043	-0.21262
1.47	0.081894	-2.50233	-0.20493	1.02	0.048827	-3.01947	-0.14743
0.59	0.032869	-3.41522	-0.11226	1.63	0.078028	-2.55069	-0.19902
1.18	0.065738	-2.72208	-0.17894	0.61	0.029201	-3.53357	-0.10318
				1.6	0.076592	-2.56927	-0.19678
				4.48	0.214467	-1.53965	-0.33019
				2.64	0.126376	-2.06849	-0.26141
17.95	1	-1.64391		20.89	1		-2.25177
drop top 3				drop bottom 3			
b	prop	ln	prop*ln	b	prop	ln	prop*ln
				1.21	0.099425	-2.30835	-0.22951
				2.84	0.233361	-1.45517	-0.33958
				2.23	0.183237	-1.69697	-0.31095
0.81	0.055441	-2.89243	-0.16036	0.81	0.066557	-2.70969	-0.18035
1.82	0.124572	-2.08287	-0.25947	1.82	0.149548	-1.90014	-0.28416
1.02	0.069815	-2.6619	-0.18584	1.02	0.083813	-2.47917	-0.20779
1.63	0.111567	-2.19313	-0.24468	1.63	0.133936	-2.01039	-0.26926
0.61	0.041752	-3.176	-0.13261	0.61	0.050123	-2.99327	-0.15003
1.6	0.109514	-2.2117	-0.24221				
4.48	0.306639	-1.18208	-0.36247				
2.64	0.180698	-1.71093	-0.30916				74
14.61	1	-1.8968		12.17	1		-1.97163

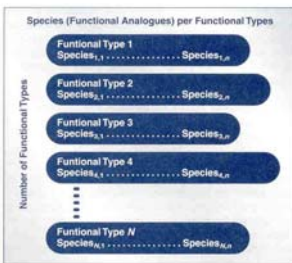


Figure 4.3 Total species diversity can be measured as the product of the number of functional types and the number of species per functional type. Two populations may have the same species diversity and still differ. For example, one may have many functional types and few functional analogues, and the other may have many analogues but few functional types. The relative number of functionally analogous species within each functional type is indicated by the width of the oval. Van Dyke 2003

Process and Pattern

1 Functional Types
2 Functional Analogs

Increase either to increase biodiversity

Which to preserve?

Niche:
Ecological role of a species in a community

Measuring Biodiversity

- alpha - beta - gamma

Beta

area or regional diversity (beta richness)
diversity of species among communities across landscape

gradient

- slope, moisture, temperature, precipitation, disturbance, etc.

Whittaker's Measure = $(S/\alpha) - 1$

where S = # spp in all sites, alpha = avg. # spp/site

a) if no community structure across gradient = 0
- broad ecological tolerances, niche breadth

b) $100/10 - 1 = 9$ high beta diversity

Beta Diversity

- 1) quantitative measure of diversity of communities that experience changing environmental gradients
- 2) are species sensitive, or not, to changing environments?
are there associations of species that are interdependent (plants, pollinators, parasites, parasitoids)?
- 3) how are species gained or lost across a TIME gradient?

Succession, community composition, effects of disturbance

Alpha and Beta Diversity Hotspots



Figure A Hot spots of rarity and species richness in the lower 48 United States. Read as a topographic map with concentric circles showing higher values of the rarity-weighted species richness index (RWRI). Hotspots are found in CA, the Death Valley region of Nevada, the Appalachian Mountains, and the Florida panhandle and Everglades. Many other regions of higher diversity are found in other parts of the U.S., and the Hawaiian Islands (not shown) have the greatest concentration of range-restricted species by far. To achieve a high RWRI both α - and β -diversity must be high. (Modified from Stein et al. 2001.)

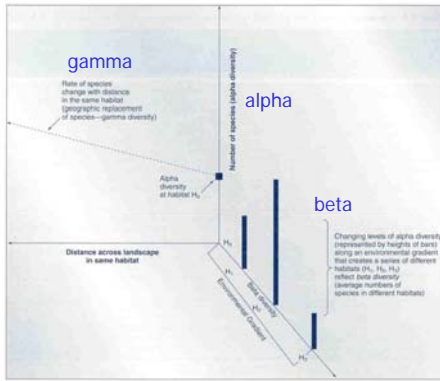


Figure 4.2
The number of species on a given site in one kind of habitat is a measure of alpha diversity (species richness). The average number of species per site along an environmental gradient (number of species per habitat) is a measure of beta diversity. The rate of species change over landscape-scale distances in the same habitat is a measure of gamma diversity (geographic replacement of species).

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Measuring Biodiversity

- alpha
- beta
- gamma

Gamma

rate of change of species composition with distance (geography, rate of gain and loss of species)

alpha rarity with increased number of species (fewer of each type)

beta rarity with habitat specialists

gamma rarity if restricted to particular geographic areas

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Measuring Biodiversity

- alpha
- beta
- gamma

Missing?

- Species role in ecosystem?
- Rarity
- Phylogenetic Representation
- Ecological Redundancy

Endemism...

Edges vs. Interior (e.g., fragmentation)

(spp richness increases, but are broad generalists, not interior habitat specialists)

All species are not equivalent (normative valuation?)

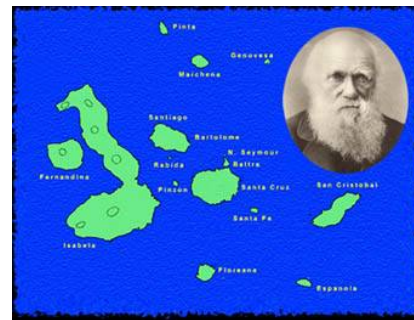
81

82

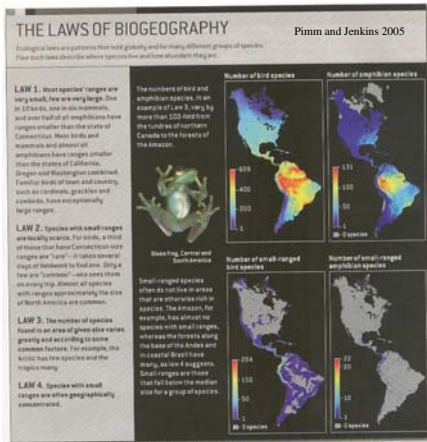


<http://www.earth.edu/~jrsb/collections/finches/finchindex.html>

83



84



85

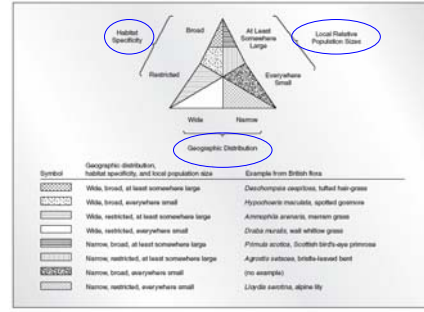


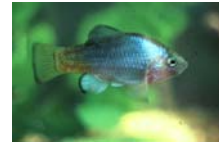
Figure 4.9 Eight categories of species abundance in British plants based on geographic range, habitat use, and relative population size. Note that only one category (broad habitat specificity, wide geographic distribution, and large local population) can truly be considered "common." Species in the other seven categories are rare in one or more dimensions. Adapted from Rubenstein, Cairns, and Olson (1986).

VanDyke 2003

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Cyprinodon macularius Desert Pupfish



Photograph Courtesy of John Rinne

Desert pupfish declined due to the introduction and spread of exotic predatory and competitive fishes, water impoundment and diversion, water pollution, groundwater pumping, stream channelization, and habitat modification.



Healthy population of almost 10,000 fish inhabits this oasis. This last refuge of a unique fish is being actively managed.

Cyprinodon macularius

Desert Pupfish

Family Cyprinodontidae



Photograph Courtesy of John Rinne

-1-1/4 inches long
max. age of three years

-females are gray and drab
males are bluish, turning bright blue during spring breeding season.

-feed on insect larvae and other organic matter from pond bottom.

-prefer shallow pond depths, about 12 to 18 inches deep.

Quitobaquito pupfish (Endangered since 1986)

This tiny fish was once part of a widespread population, the range of which included the Colorado, Gila, San Pedro, Salt and Santa Cruz rivers and their tributaries in Arizona and California. The ancestors of the Quitobaquito and Sonoyta river pupfish are believed to have been cut off from their relatives in the Colorado River drainage about one million years ago.

The warm, slightly brackish water at Quitobaquito is ideal habitat for pupfish. Pupfish can tolerate salinity levels ranging from normal tap water to water three times saltier than the ocean. Therefore, they are well suited to desert environments where high evaporation rates create water with high salinity levels.

Although the water temperature at the spring is a constant 74°F, the water temperature in the pond fluctuates greatly during the year, from about 40°F or cooler in January to almost 100°F in August, especially in shallow areas... very tolerant of rapid temperature change and low oxygen content due to summer heat.

Pricing Biodiversity

$$R_i = (D_i + U_i)(\Delta P_i / C_i)$$

D = distinctiveness

U = utility

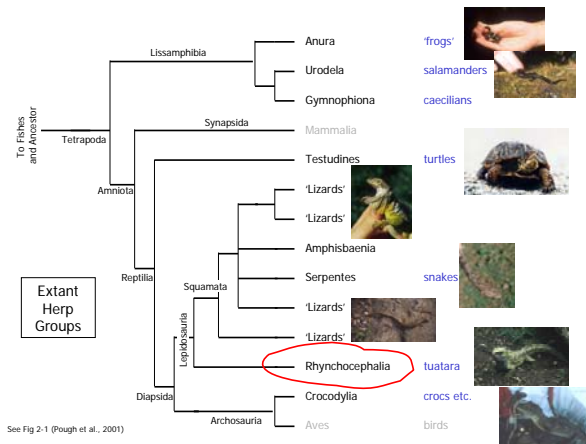
Δ P = enhanced probability of survival

C = cost of strategy

Direct limited funds...

Ecological Contribution?

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Rhynchocephalia

- evolved before dinosaurs
- world-wide distribution in Mesozoic
- most extinct at end Cretaceous (65mya)



Sphenodontidae

- 1 extant genus (*Sphenodon*)
- 2 extant species

- restricted to small islands of New Zealand



- long lived

Discussion:

Pricing Biodiversity

$$R_i = (D_i + U_i)(\Delta P_i / C_i)$$

D = distinctiveness

U = utility

ΔP = enhanced probability of survival

C = cost of strategy

Direct limited funds...

Ecological Contribution?

Biodiversity vs. Wilderness

"no essential contradiction between social interests and biodiversity conservation"

93

p.109, VanDyke (Sarkar, 1999)

94

END

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